LINGUISTIC DIFFICULTIES FOR POLISH STUDENTS STUDYING TURKISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE: A CASE STUDY

TÜRKÇEYİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEN LEH ÖĞRENCİLERİN DİLSEL PROBLEMLERİ: DURUM ÇALIŞMASI

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Gülden TÜM

Çukurova University

Abstract

The purpose of this case study was to explore linguistic difficulties of Polish learners while learning Turkish as a foreign language, to sort out linguistic categories they struggle during their learning process, and also which learning strategies they get benefit to reach their target. Therefore, in this study, the following three research questions are investigated from the perspectives of three Polish learners of Turkish language:1) How do they recognize their own linguistic difficulties?; 2) How do their own life experiences help them to develop intercultural competence and a meta-awareness of linguistic competence?; and 3) What learning strategies do they use to cope with in real communication atmosphere? Participants of this study are Polish Erasmus students attending Turkish classes at Çukurova University, Adana-Turkey. As a result of qualitative data analyses carried out by using multiple data collection methods –interviews, and think-aloud protocols, it is found that Polish learners use different learning strategies to cope with linguistic difficulties and to improve their linguistic competence.

Key Words: Turkish as a foreign language, linguistic difficulties, linguistic competence, language learning strategies.

Öz

Bu durum çalışmasının amacı, Türkçeyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Leh öğrencilerin karşılaştıkları dilsel problemleri incelemek, öğrenme süreçleri boyunca ne tür dilbilimsel sınıflandırmalarla mücadele ettiklerini ortaya koymak ve hangi dil öğrenme stratejilerinden

yararlandıklarının incelenmesidir. Bu yüzden bu çalışmada üç araştırma sorusuna cevap bulunmaya çalışılmıştır: Leh öğrenciler dilsel problemlerini nasıl tanımlıyorlar, yaşamsal deneyimleri dilsel yeterliklerinin farkına varmalarına ve kültürlerarası yeterliklerinin gelişmesine nasıl yardımcı oluyor, ve son olarak da gerçek iletişim ortamlarında hangi dil öğrenme stratejileri problemlerinin üstesinden gelmesine yardımcı oluyor. Bu çalışmanın katılımcıları Çukurova Üniversitesinde Türkçe öğrenen Erasmus Öğrenci Değişim programı ile gelen 3 Leh öğrencidir. Nitel veri analizlerinden karşılıklı görüşme ve yüksek sesle konuşma protokollerinin sonuçları Leh öğrencilerin dilsel zorluklarının üstesinden gelmek ve dil yetilerini geliştirmek için farklı öğrenme stratejileri geliştirdiklerini göstermektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: *Yabancı dil olarak Türkçe, dilsel zorluklar, dilsel yetinç, dil öğrenme stratejileri*

Introduction

The fundamental features of any language are likely to be different from other language families when compared to each other. These differences make languages rich in texture but at the same time it creates difficulties for learners. In this respect, Turkish-a very ancient language dating back to 8500 years- has a phonetic, morphological and syntactic structure with its rich vocabulary. The features of Turkish, which belongs to the Ural-Altaic language family, but the Indo-European ones, are considered fivefold: 1) Agglutination, 2) Vowel harmony, 3) The absence of gender, 4) Adjectives that precede nouns, and finally 5) Verbs that come at the end of sentence. Additionally, in a historical context, Turkish spoken in Turkey can be classified according to three distinct periods: 1) Old Anatolian Turkish (old Ottoman-the 13th to the 15th centuries), 2) Ottoman Turkish (16th to the 19th century), and 3) 20th century Turkish (Sarı, 2011).

When considering various languages that come from different language families and the historical context, it is natural to encounter phonetics, phonology, morphophonemics, morphology, syntax, semantics and lexicology (Demircan, 2005). In this constructivist linguistics, these features generally cause difficulties for learners during learning process. In this respect, Turkish appears to be hard as it is an agglutinative language, which is completely different from Polish, an inflective language. Therefore, it seems hard for Polish learners to understand most of the linguistic patterns or rules. For instance, the primary problem is related to 'suffixes', what is formulated with different types in these agglutinative and inflective languages (Turkish and Polish). In agglutinative language suffixes are used for cases, plural, moods, and tenses (Atabay, Özel and Kutluk, 2003). On the other hand, in an inflective language such as Polish, learners use inflection for all various forms (i.e., for cases, person, gender, plural, moods (indicative, imperative, conditional), and for tenses). For instance, in Polish, suffixes for Turkish are written with separate words and alteration whereas in Turkish suffixes are added to words regarding the function of suffixes. In other words, inflectional and derivational suffixes are likely to be added to the same word. That is why, it might be confusing for Polish learners to adjust to the new rules while learning Turkish. For example, in Turkish signifying personal possessive words are not necessarily used unless they are emphasized. However, in Polish they are necessary parts of sentences. Turkish suffixes are attached one another considering inflectional and derivational items, which are very uncommon and complicated for Polish learners. The other problem is complicated construction of Turkish sentence, which is also totally different in Polish language. Pronunciation is an

obstacle for Polish learners because there are 29 letters in Turkish alphabet and each letter in Turkish has only one sound or different stress when compared with Polish language. The other problem about pronunciation is the vowel harmony rules which are uncommon and unknown to European language speakers. Additionally, there are also some sounds written within different symbols and given in diverse versions in dictionaries whereas there are a few symbols, which never appear in Polish, but in Turkish or the opposite that means some symbols which never exist in Turkish but in Polish. These differences might be overcome by learners; however, there are some loanwords which are not based on vowel harmony; thus, Polish learners have difficulties to produce them correctly. Except all the mentioned problems above, in both Turkish and Polish there are several similar words, meaning completely different but causing confusion for learners.

Method

Participants of this case study are three Polish Erasmus students Roxana, Natalia and Urszula from Turkology Department at Adam Mickiewicz University, Poland, and studying Turkish at Çukurova University, Adana-Turkey. These three participants are included in the case study at two different academic years in order to enhance the validity and reliability of the data collected as also emphasized by Brown and Rodgers (2002) that data should be taken into account from at least two points of view to maximize the possibility of getting credible findings by cross-validating those findings. Roxana and Natalia, who attended the Turkish lessons in the Fall Term, were very similar in terms of the typicality of their backgrounds; and in their similar concerns about learning Turkish language whereas Urszula, who took Turkish lessons in the Spring Term, would develop a weaker, and less detailed analysis than a review of the other two participants' data. In order to gather data, interviews, think-aloud protocols (the multiple data-gathering procedures), and observations of the participants' performance during the classroom activities were observed throughout the whole academic year. All the participants spoke English fluently and they all had some experience in learning foreign language(s) before, for example, French, German, Italian, Arabic or Kazakh. All of them had learned Turkish in their sending institution before they came to the hosting institution in Turkey to continue their education in Erasmus student exchange program.

Even though case studies have been criticized because of not representing the population from which the participants were drawn, a reasonable number of qualitative studies is carried out to be based on focus on the social practices and sincere opinion and knowledge of people in a specific cultural context. Therefore, this study has been conducted as a case study and the following table summarizes how data were collected by means of interviews and lesson observation with the participants.

Table 1. *Time, Data Sources, and Data Collection Strategies*

Time	Data Sources	Data Collection Strategies
all Quarter 010	1. Class observations 2. In class discussion with participants 3. Mini meetings on previous lessons in the researcher's office 4. Descriptions about expectations of	✓ Informal conversation with the ✓ participant ✓ Collection of class assignments ✓ Initial interview with

	the teacher and the participants 5. Informal interviews based on think-aloud protocols with the participants	participants ✓ Mini lessons or meetings on ✓ reflections from participants related to Turkish learning ✓ Informal conversations with participants' expectations
pring uarter 2011	1. Class observations 2. In class discussion with participants 3. Mini meetings on previous lessons in the researcher's office 4. Descriptions about expectations of the teacher and the participants 5. Informal interviews based on think-aloud protocols with the participants	✓ Observation of participants in lessons ✓ Interviews with ✓ participants ✓ Interview with participants ✓ Think-aloud protocols with participants

Results and Discussion

Languages coming from various language families have morphological, syntactic, semantic and phonological differences that cause obstacles for language learners. In this study, in order to answer the research questions, '*How do they recognize their own linguistic difficulties?*', and the second question, '*How do their own life experiences help them to develop intercultural competence and a meta-awareness of linguistic competence?, and 'What learning strategies do the participants use to cope with in real communication atmosphere?*', the participants were observed in the classroom atmosphere, interviewed after lessons and/or at random intervals, and also required to have think-aloud protocols regarding the answers of these three questions. Why the participants were observed was to be successful, strategy training demands a constant cooperation between the researcher and participants in sharing their observations, experiences and problems connected with learning" (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). The participants were also interviewed considering the fact that an interview is a commonly-used instrument in case studies and it provides not only access to the context of people's behavior and to understand the meaning of that behavior" (Seidman, 2006, p. 10) but also it allows researchers to put behavior in context by providing access to understand their action. All the participants had the enthusiasm and dedication that it takes to keep all of them awake and interested, so does it keep the Turkish instructor.

The main goals for the interviews were to elaborate the discussion, review, and confirmation of the participants and to encourage them to provide more detail about their personal experience with how they learned Turkish and whether they enjoyed the courses. The other purpose was to let them have chance to ask in case they misunderstand and need further clarification.

As think-aloud protocols is one of the verbal report methods, the participants were asked to think aloud and speak out loud whatever thoughts came to their mind about Turkish learning. In this method, the participants are also encouraged to interpret in order to provide an accurate, complete and coherent report on a cognitive process about language learning. Brown and Rodgers (2002) state that verbal reports have a vital importance since they are cognitive processes verbalized and should be carried out immediately after the task is finished as much

information is still in short-term memory. The participants are also encouraged to give a concurrent account of their thoughts during the think-aloud procedure.

In the end of the interviews and think-aloud protocols carried out in this study, it was observed that learners who speak inflective languages and learn agglutinative language struggle with the linguistic patterns or rules and realize their own learning strategies to cope with their obstacles. To answer the first two research questions, they expressed their opinions giving details about their problems as shown below:

Nominative case: Ev – dom (house),

Possessive case:

- (Benim) Ev*im* – *mój* dom (my house),
- (Senin) Ev*in* – *twój* dom (your house),
- (Onun) Ev*i* – *jego/jej* dom (his/her house),
- (Bizim) Ev*imiz* – *nasz* dom (our house),
- (Sizin) Ev*iniz* – *wasz* dom (your house), and
- (Onların) Ev*i* – *ich* dom (their house).

The examples above indicate how words are formulated in Turkish and Polish in the possessive case. As seen, in Turkish suffixes at the end of each word include possession and the other words signifying personal possessive words are not necessarily used unless they are emphasized. However, in Polish they are parts of the phrases as nouns have no any signifying indicators in them. In order to give some more examples, all the other cases in Polish are given as follows:

- Accusative : ev*i* – dom (no change)
- Dative : ev*e* – *do* dom*u* (*to* a house)
- Ablative : ev*den* – *z* dom*u* (*from* a house);
- Instrumental : ev *ile* – *z* dom*em* (*with* a house)
- Genitive : ev*i* – dom*owi (his* house)
- Locative : ev*de* – *w* dom*u* (*in* a house)

As realized in the exemplification above, Turkish suffixes are attached to nouns regarding the cases that are usually differently formulated in any other language. Additionally, suffixes in Turkish are also added to verbs and predicates within the same manner. Even though in Polish, nouns take alteration and the case form is also used as a separate word, it is stated by Polish learners that the suffixes in Turkish cases cause hardship for them while producing statements. Hence, disadvantages for Polish learners for very long words are likely to be observed, especially, while adding suffixes; for instance, sometimes even one word

expresses a whole sentence in which several functional suffixes are attached. The following sentences are good examples to indicate the way a sentence is formed and it is indeed very uncommon in Polish language as follows:

1. Konuş$_1$-abilir$_2$-im$_3$- – Ja$_3$ mogę$_2$ porozmawiać$_1$.
[in Turkish; $_1$-talk, bare verb; $_2$-suffix for ability or modals; and $_3$-personal ending for first person singual (I$_3$ can$_2$ talk$_1$.)]

2. Yol$_1$-da$_2$-yım$_3$- – Jestem$_3$ w$_2$ drodz$_1$-e$_2$.
[in Turkish; $_1$-way, $_2$-suffix for location, and $_3$-buffer 'y'and personal ending for first person singual (I'm$_3$ on$_2$ the way$_1$.)]

3. Ev$_1$-in$_2$-de$_3$-dir$_4$- – Jest$_4$ w$_3$ jego$_2$ domach$_1$.
[in Turkish; $_1$-house, $_2$-suffix for his or her for third person singual, $_3$-suffix for location, and $_4$-non-verbal ending or verb 'to be' (He is$_4$ in$_3$ his$_2$ house$_1$.)]

As illustrated in the examples given above, it would be very difficult for Polish learners to recall the order of any suffix to be attached; therefore, they might make several mistakes with the case suffixes and also the other suffixes referring to plural form. What is produced by these learners for the first sentence would be 'konuşmakabilir', by adding the infinitive part of the verb (to talk) and forgetting the personal ending, which is attached as –*im* in 'Konuşabilirim'. This production results from the fact that they hesitate or struggle what to add to the word and generally within an effort they forget about the personal ending. For the second example, Polish learners again seem to ignore the suffix for personal ending. And, they state 'Yolda' instead of 'Yoldayım'. For the last example, Polish learners are uncertain about the order of the suffixes for plural form and possessive case, and say 'evimler' which is incorrect; the correct form is 'evlerim'.

The other problem is likely to be complicated construction of Turkish sentence, which is also totally different in Polish language. Therefore, Polish learners would suffer how to produce sentences and feel discouraged about how to construct word order in any sentence. This attitude results in obstacle for these learners of Turkish language. For instance, even though both Polish and Turkish languages have flexible word order system in semantics, Polish learners might be unaware about the similarities in both languages. In Polish word order in a sentence is not stable and predicate can be expressed anywhere and it still has sense; however, in Turkish predicate appears at the end of sentence. The reason for this statement might be that Polish learners at the beginners level are stick with permanent rules in Turkish to form a sentence and they are unfamiliar with inversion in Turkish; therefore, they feel obliged to make regular sentences. In Turkish slang or colloquial speech there might be more exceptions or options for one sentence as given below (from the most to the least common usage of the sentence):
'*Dün$_1$ çok$_2$ ilginç$_3$ bir kitap$_4$ oku$_5$-du$_6$-m$_7$.*', which means 'I read very interesting book yesterday.' is likely to be expressed in several different ways in Polish:
[$_1$-yesterday, $_2$-very/adj, $_3$-interesting/adj, $_4$-a book/art. and noun, $_5$- read/verb, $_6$-suffix for past tense, and $_7$-personal ending for first person singual (Yesterday a very interesting book I read.)]

1. *Wczoraj$_1$ bardzo$_2$ ciekawa$_3$ książkę$_4$ czytałem$_5$.* Dün çok ilginç bir kitap okudum.' (Yesterday very interesting book I read.)

2.   *Bardzo₂ ciekawa₃ książkę₄ czytałem₅ wczoraj₁*. Çok ilginç bir kitap okudum dün. (Very interesting book yesterday I read.)

3.   *Wczoraj₁ czytałem₅ bardzo₂ ciekawą₃ książkę₄*. 'Dün okudum çok ilginç bir kitap'. (Yesterday I read an interesting book.)

4.   *Czytałem₅ wczoraj₁ bardzo₂ ciekawą₃ książkę₄*. 'Okudum dün çok ilginç bir kitap.'(I read yesterday very interesting book.)

5.   *Bardzo₂ ciekawa₃ książkę₄ wczoraj₁ czytałem₅*. (Very interesting book yesterday I read.) (No Turkish)

6.   *Czytałem₅ bardzo₂ ciekawa₃ książkę₄ wczoraj₁*. (I read very interesting book yesterday.) (No Turkish)

Additionally, Polish learners also have problems on phonetics and phonology. Pronunciation is not as easy as it might seem even though each letter has only one sound, and the letters in any word are pronounced individually in Turkish. Vowel harmony rules in Turkish let speakers pronounce letters regarding consonants and vowels divided into two groups, front and back). For instance, in Polish, when considered vowels, there seems to be some issues such as a) the relation between the vowels [i . é] and the preceding consonants; the absence of [é] word-initially; the impossibility of palatalised labials pre-consonantally and word-finally; and the almost general phonetic realisation of palatalised labials as a sequence of a labial and palatal glide before a vowel, unless the vowel happens to be [i] (Gussmann, 2004: p.111). In Turkish, there are eight vowels (*e,i,ö,ü* – front, and *a,ı,o,u* – back) and the same sounds are preserved throughout words. The syllables of a word are important and the second or other vowel harmonizes with the first one in a word. While adding suffixes, these properties of the vowel should be taken into consideration. Despite this fact, a lot of Polish learners pronounce letters it incorrectly as vowel harmony is unknown to European language speakers. For Polish learners vowel harmony seems complicated to use in one word since pronunciation is carried out without this type of rule in Polish. Here are some examples:

• In Turkish   : y*a*ğm*u*rl*u* , in Polish   : d*e*szcz*o*wy, (*rainy* in English)

• In Turkish   : ş*ü*ph*e*, in Polish   : w*ą*tpl*i*w*o*ść, (*doubt* in English)

• In Turkish   : y*ı*ld*ı*rım*ı*, in Polish   : b*ł*ysk*a*wic*ę*, (*the lightning* in accusative case in English)

The other problems regarding pronunciation can be listed as follows:

• Sound /c/ is pronounced in Polish as 'ts'/'tz' , and as 'j' in Turkish ('job' in English)

• Sound /j/ is pronounced in Polish as 'yi', and as 'j' in Turkish ('pleasure' in English)

- Sound /y/[1] is pronounced in Polish between 'i' in English and 'ü' in German, and as 'ie' in Turkish ('iemek'– yemek)

- Sound /ı/ is shown by another symbol – in Poland by 'y', but pronunciation is the same

- Sound /v/ is shown by another symbol – in Poland by 'w', but pronunciation is the same

In Polish, there are also some sounds written in different symbols, which might be an obstacle for learners since they face diverse versions of these symbols in dictionaries. These symbols might have different phonetic sounds which are likely to be inappropriately written as in the examples given below:

- Sound /ç/ in Polish sounds like 'ć' (in dictionaries shown as 'cz' English 'church')

- Sound /ş/ in Polish sounds like 'ś', (in dictionaries shown as 'sz' English 'show')

Besides the examples given above, there are a few symbols, which never appear in Polish, but in Turkish as listed below:

- Sound /ğ/ is not pronounced but produced by extending the preceding vowel. For
  instance, it serves to lengthen the previous vowel after 'a', 'ı', 'o', 'u'; and it becomes /y/ after 'e', 'i', 'ö', 'ü' /ğ/,

- Sound /ö/ is pronounced as German 'ö' – in Polish there is no equivalent for this sound,

- Sound /ü/ is pronounced as German 'ü' – in Polish there is no equivalent for this sound.

Last but not the least problem for Polish learners might be some symbols which never exist in Turkish but in Polish as follows:

- Sound /ą/

- Sound /ć/ (mentioned above)

- Sound /ę/

- Sound /ł/

- Sound /ń/

- Sound /ó/ (pronounced in Turkish as 'u')

- Sound /ś/ (mentioned above)

- Sound /ż/

- Sound /ź/

---

[1] In Polish /y/ is treated as a vowel, in Turkish as a consonant.

As indicated in the examples above, in every language, as also in Turkish, there are exceptions out of the rules. For instance, words which are not based on vowel harmony are loanwords from Arabic, Persian, English, French, Italian or other languages (i.e., misafir, galiba, vakit, saat, ekonomi, televizyon etc.). Even though the difficulty of studying and remembering vocabulary depends on learner's own ability, a lot of loanwords from different languages seem an obstacle for Polish learners to produce them correctly.

In Turkish language, the other problem is that there are a lot of similar words, meaning completely different. Often these differences are related with one or two letters causing confusion for learners as listed below:

- Kas (muscle), kaz (goose)

- Yas (lament), yaz (summer)

- Berber (barber), beraber (together)

- Hata (mistake), hatta (even)

- Uymak (to obey/ to fit), uyumak (to sleep)

- Duymak (to hear), doymak (to feel satisfied, to be full)

Besides unfamiliar and unknown symbols, some other words written the same but spoken with different stress make comprehension more complicated as in the examples given below:

- Hala (aunt), hala/hâlâ (still)

- Kar (snow), kar/kâr (profit)

- Ekmek (bread), ekmek (to cultivate/ to give somebody the slip)

- Yaz (summer), yaz (command form of the verb 'to write', which means *Write!*)

- Çakmak (lighter), çakmak (to hammer/ to notice)

- Kaymak (Turkish cream), kaymak (to ski/ to lapse/ to slip)

Even though Polish learners complain about the words written same with different stress, it is fortune for them to have a few words which sound similar with the same meaning in their own language as given below:

- Vişne – wiśnia (cherry)

- Şörbet – sorbet (iceslash)

- Montaj – montaż (editing)

- Şapka – czapka (cap)

For Polish learners, what is more interesting and even overwhelming is that there are also some words written and sound in the same way in Turkish and Polish, but misleading in meaning.

- Kupa (Tr: 'cup' or 'hearts' as color in game cards; Po: 'a lot of' in slang)

- Burak (Tr: male name; Po: 'beetroot')

- Kara (Tr: 'black'; Po: 'punishment')

- Para (Tr: 'money'; Po: 'couple' or 'steam')

Besides several examples given above, there are still a lot of lexical difficulties in Turkish, especially, loanwords from other languages such as Arabic (miktar, mektup, kitap), Persian (rüzgar), İtalian (berber), or French (ekonomi, röportaj, otobüs). Occurrence of thousands of Arabic loanwords in Turkish language is caused by historical reasons, "after the 16th century foreign terms dominated written texts, in fact, some Turkish words disappeared altogether from the written language. In the field of literature, a great passion for creating art work of high quality persuaded the ruling elite to attribute higher value to literary works containing a high proportion of Arabic and Persian vocabulary, which resulted in the domination of foreign elements over Turkish."[2] Also until 1928 (year of Atatürk's reforms) Turks were using Arabic alphabet and the language was full of loanwords.

In light of information give above, it is clear that Polish learners might face several difficulties including morphology, syntax, semantics, and phonology. On the other hand, from more practical point of view, spoken Turkish is very difficult to understand whenever they hear idioms or sayings. In terms of idioms, which are hard to be translated into Polish. For example: 'dört gözle beklemek' what means 'to wait impatiently' is expressed differently, and very confusing. Nevertheless, some of idioms are clearly understandable for them; for example, 'ateşle oynamak', which means 'to play with fire'. During daily conversation, native speakers of Turkish speak very fast and they usually drop endings (i.e., 'gideceğim', which means 'I'll go.' is uttered and pronounced as 'gidecem' or 'gitcem'). As Polish learners who probably know about 3 foreign languages coming from different language families might focus on the end of the sentence to grasp meaning, they might hardly ever catch the ending and understand full sentence. Especially, when native speakers of Turkish use slang, it is again hard to understand the message conveyed (i.e., in Adana which is southern part of Turkey people say 'Adanalıyık' instead of 'Adanalıyız', which means 'we are from Adana'; or 'gidek' instead of 'gidelim', which means 'let's go'). At the initial stages of learning, regional usages might become an obstacle; however, as time goes by, and one's vocabulary is more improved, this obstacle seems to disappear.

In order to gather data for the third research question, '*What learning strategies do the participants use to cope with in real communication atmosphere?*', the results of the interviews and the think-aloud procedures are taken into consideration. All the learning strategies identified from the interviews, and the think-aloud protocols are divided into three categories: 1) Strategies for creating study aids, (2) Strategies for discovering the usage of linguistic patterns, and (3) Strategies for consolidating them in real conversations. The first category "strategies for creating study aids" is usually viewed as memory strategies or consolidation strategies and includes strategies such as repeating the newly learned items,

---

[2] http://www.turkishculture.org/pages.php?ParentID=3&ID=12

taking notes, realizing linguistic patterns, and so on. While creating the study aids, learners have a chance to consolidate the information recorded on the aids. However, creating study aids is often the initial step for learning process. Taking notes of what is taught in the learning environment is kindly reference material for discovering meaning of unknown words, a material for review, or an item to be used in real conversation. The second one is strategies for discovering the usage of linguistic patterns. In these strategies learners recognize the similarity in word forming or Turkish structure; they compare their equivalent in their mother language (i.e., cognates or borrowings); they confirm their guessing by consulting a bilingual dictionary or electronic dictionary; they consult notes taken from class; and finally they translate phrases. The third one is strategies for consolidating them in real conversations two ways: structural and phonological usage. Structural usage includes study aids, and references taken from class, elaborations and connections of newly learned items in sentences in real conversations. Phonological usage includes repetition and attention to sound of words.

To sum up, learning a foreign language is challenging. Especially, if foreign language learners had no chance to live in the country where the target language is spoken and they were not exposed to that language on daily basis, they would have weaknesses to acquire or use phrases and words. Nevertheless, when they find opportunity to live in the country whose native language they are studying, their knowledge of the language grows and they start to survive in that culture by becoming aware of the basic facts. Especially, in terms of complexity Polish learners make a comparison between Turkish and Polish, and they state that Polish is also noted to be one of the most difficult world languages, there are also rules, but much more complicated and sometimes unexplainable for foreigners. To them, Turkish is very regular language and it doesn't matter how many rules or exceptions it has since all of them are strictly explainable. Consequently, the results of this study indicate that participants used a variety of learning strategies (memory strategies or consolidation strategies) to learn Turkish. Finally, the study shows that well organized and planned learning strategy training (i.e., repeating the newly learned items, taking notes, realizing linguistic patterns, recognizing and comparing similarities in both languages) should be provided to language learners in order to make sure that they can use the strategies effectively. The different interpretations given about comments, reactions and interactions among participants might require a detailed analysis that can be provided by additional research on learning Turkish as a foreign language.

Limitations

Even though the most important element of this study involved observing the participants, interviewing with them, and letting them have think-aloud protocols, the results were collected and presented together not under the individual names of participants.

REFERENCES

ANTONOWICZ, B. L., and Dubiński, A. (2008). Słownik Turecko Polski, Polsko Turecki. Warszawa: Wiedza Powszechna

ATABAY, N., Özel, S., and Kutluk, İ. (2003). *Sözcük Türleri*: Bilimsel ve Teknik Kitaplar.

İstanbul: Papatya Yayıncılık.

BAYRAMOĞLU, A. (2004). Let's Learn Turkish. (E.T. 20.11.2011 http://www.arcaajans.com/letslearnturkish/

BROWN, J. D., and Rodgers, T. (2002). *Doing Second Language Research.* Oxford:

Oxford University Press.

DEMIRCAN, Ö. (2003). *Türk Dilinde Çatı*: Bilimsel ve Teknik Kitaplar. İstanbul: Papatya Yayıncılık.

DEMIRCAN, Ö. (2005). Türkiye Türkçesinde Kök-Ek Bileşmeleri. İstanbul: Papatya Yayıncılık.

GUSSMAN, E. (2004). Polish Front Vowels or Baudouin de Courtenay *redivivus. Studies in Polish Linguistics. Pp. 103-128.*

KILIÇ, V. (2002). Dilin İşlevleri ve İletişim. İstanbul: Papatya Yayıncılık.

LINDLOF, T. R., and Taylor, B. (2002). *Qualitative communication research method.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

MAJDA, T. (2001). Język Turecki. Warszawa: Dialog Wydawnictwo Akademickie.

SARI, M. (2011). *Türk Dili*: Ders Kitapları. Ankara: Okutman Yayıncılık.

SEIDMAN, I. (2006). *Interviewing as Qualitative Research. A Guide for Researchers in*

Education and the Social Sciences. New York: Teachers College Press.

STACHOWSKI, M. (2007). Gramatyka Języka Tureckiego w Zarysie. Warszawa: Dialog

Wydawnictwo Akademickie.

O'MALLEY, J. M., and Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition.* Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.http://www.turkishculture.org/pages.php?ParentID=3&ID=124.